1: Dube . E-5 (1951-52) 1955 AW17 Telugu AW17

nities, unreasonable harshness in behaviour or rough handling. Payments differ on the basis of the quality and quantity of work they turn out, and also partly on the nature and temperament of the employer. Slow and lazy workers are paid the barest minimum, while the experienced and the efficient earn much more. In the words of a Madiga, 'If we do not work well, who will pay us? If we do very little work and that too badly, we get what we deserve in the end. If we do not work well we cannot afford to be sensitive; we have to be thick-skinned to stand the abuse of our master. But if we work hard and earn our wages by the sweat of our brow, the master has to treat us well.' To quote another informant: 'Some masters are large-hearted. They make us work hard, but they feed us well. Others expect us to work like oxen, but when it comes to feeding us they dole out mere handfuls as if we were little calves. They always grumble and curse, but when it is time for making payment to us they seem to forget that we too must have a morsel to fill our bellies and a yard of cloth to cover our bodies.' In addition to what the Madiga families get by 'begging' at the time of harvesting, during the busy agricultural season they are fed once a day by the master. According to convention, the master should give a new cloth once every year to each individual from the attached Madiga family who has worked in his fields.

Very few Madigas possess any land worth mentioning, and therefore independent cultivation by them is almost negligible. But they have several other additional means of subsistence open to them. They have to dispose of the dead cattle in the village. As they do not refrain from carrion, this constitutes one source of food supply for them. They are also entitled to get one half of the hide of the dead animal; the other half belongs to the owner. From the owner's share of the hide the Madigas have to make for him such leather articles as he may require for agricultural purposes. Several Madiga families cure hides and work in leather; others earn a part of their living by playing drums and pipes at ceremonial occasions.

2. AGRICULTURE

The settled area of Shamirpet, including the two neighbouring hamlets, is spread over an area of 58 acres. Out of this Shamirpet proper occupies 31·4 acres. In the land surrounding the settlement,

1: Dube E-5 (1951-52) 1955 AW17 Telugu AW17

311 ment, classified in government land records as belonging to this village, approximately 20·4 acres are covered by streams and small rivers, 25 acres by unmetalled roads and footpaths and 61 acres by irrigation channels. Thus apart from the 58 acres which provide the site for the village and the two hamlets attached to it, 106·4 acres are covered by these footpaths, channels and streams. The total land area of the village according to government records is 5,777 acres. Out of this 2,012 acres are uncul-
241 tivable; 162·8 acres being covered with rocks and shrubs. In all 3,765 acres are under cultivation in the village: 3,339·5 acres are classed as 'dry land', for this area is irrigated entirely by the rains; and 425·6 acres are classed as 'wet land' as extra irrigation is available. Although the dry land occupies a proportionately wider area, it is much less productive than the wet land. In 1951–52, out of the total village land revenue of Rs. 9,137 (Hyderabad currency) only Rs. 3,982/4/- were derived as revenue on dry land, the rest came from wet land. The wet land is further classified into *ābi*, *tābi* and *do fasla* land. In the *ābi* land seeds are sown in the rainy season (June to July) and harvested in mid- or late winter (November to January). This type of land occupies 131 acres and yields a revenue of Rs. 1,332 per year. In the *tābi* land sowing is done in winter (October to November) and the crops are harvested in summer (April to May). *Tābi* land covers 162·4 acres in the village and yields a revenue of Rs. 1,868/12/0 per year. Finally 63·5 acres are classed as the much prized *do fasla* or two crop land. As the very name suggests, crops are sown and harvested on this land twice every year. Notwithstanding its small area this land yields a revenue of Rs. 1,208/12/0. All this wet land is irrigated by channels from the Shamirpet tank. Mention may also be made of another 68 acres, which are irrigated by small privately owned tanks and wells and bring to the government a revenue of Rs. 745/12/0 per year. Wet land is very much desired by the cultivators because of its high productivity and requirement of com-
[435] paratively low investment. According to current valuation average wet land sells at Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,200 per acre.

241 433 It would only be natural to expect that in a primarily agricultural community the number of professional cultivators and others directly dependent upon agriculture should be the highest. Table I shows the number of people who are wholly agriculturists, partly agriculturists and partly field-labourers, and partly agri-

1: Dube E-5 (1951-52) 1955 AW17 Telugu AW17

a number of years, according to law he acquires semi-proprietary rights over them. The landlord does not want this to happen, and so with a view to safeguarding his own interests he leases out his land to different persons in different years. A short-term lease is naturally not conducive to land improvement, for the person cultivating the land does not risk any investment in it. If he does improve it, in one of the following years the landlord may lease it out to someone else who offers to pay more than the person who improved the land. Secondly, those who hold most of the agricultural land in the village are interested in maintaining a supply of cheap agricultural labour, without which it would be impossible for them to cultivate their extensive fields. They benefit more by cultivating their land with the help of this labour, than by leasing out their land. If they leased out all their surplus land the cheap labour supply would appreciably diminish, and for want of competition wages of those who were still available would rise. To avoid this they choose to leave some of their land uncultivated, and thus we have the paradox of having in the same village many land-hungry families and several hundred acres of uncultivated land.

The land belongs to the family, and normally the head of the family exercises control over it. On the death of the father, the land and other agricultural property—such as tools, implements and livestock—are distributed equally among the brothers. Provision is made for the marriage of unmarried daughters as well as for the maintenance of the minor sons of the deceased. In very special cases, with the consent of all the brothers, a widowed sister is also given a small share. But this is a gratuity rather than a rightful share.

The agriculturists have considerable sentiment for their land and cattle. If adversity compels them to sell some of their fields or cattle, the day when this is done becomes a day of semi-mourning for the household. The hour of transfer is indeed a sad one, and the farmer will complete the necessary formalities with a heavy heart. For several days the family atmosphere remains overcast with gloom. The womenfolk may even wail and shed tears of real grief. In the sentiments of an Indian peasant, the Earth occupies a mother's position and parting with a fragment of it is nearly tantamount to separation from the mother. It is surprising how cattle become almost members of the agriculturist's family, and how

ECONOMIC STRUCTURE

diseases. Plough-cattle are on the whole better looked after. But the neglect of the cow, traditionally regarded as 'the mother', is indeed pathetic. Absence of good breeding bulls and lack of grazing grounds further account for the poor condition of the cattle. In the absence of a good pedigree bull, scrub bulls of no particular description are allowed to move freely among the cows. According to village land records there are 1,482 acres of pasture-land in the area surrounding the settlement; but this land is almost always auctioned to contractors from outside the village. As these pastures are not available for grazing to the village cattle, they roam about the shrubs and rocks around the village and eat whatever fodder is available there.

The shortage of draught-cattle is a serious handicap to the prosperity of average peasants in the village. The well-to-do agriculturists always have a sufficient number of cattle to meet their own agricultural requirements. But the average and poorer peasants find great difficulty in tilling their fields in time with the limited number of their own or hired cattle. Dependence on the monsoons obliges them to make certain variations in their agricultural schedule to fit in with the uncertainty of the rains. Some of their operations must precede the first rainfall; others must follow it almost immediately. For some days during the busy season this causes great pressure on available resources in men and cattle. The cultivators who depend on hired cattle or who practise co-operative lending and borrowing of cattle cannot take the best advantage of the first rains, and this enforced wait results in untimely sowing and poor crops.

The absence of good milch cattle affects the nutrition of the people. In May 1951 the total daily yield of milk in the village was about 14 lb. only. Earlier it has been pointed out that most people in the village keep poultry, but in general its quality is poor, and the production of eggs is estimated to be in the neighbourhood of 1,400 a year.

5. OTHER ECONOMIC PURSUITS

Before we pass on to the other occupations brief reference should be made to some common exploitative activities of the people.

Hunting is done regularly by a very limited number of people. Only the Erkalas have adopted it as a part of their profession.

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AWl India
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and Tungabhadra valleys lie at 1000–1500 ft, and to the NW the watershed between the Bhima and the Godavari is a great swelling upland reaching 2400 ft in places. But the general aspect nearly everywhere is that of practically senile peneplains, intersected by broad, open, almost completely graded valleys, and littered with monadnocks which range from considerable hill-groups to innumerable fantastic tors which look like dumps of gigantic road-metal. Around Hyderabad City these form "a chaos of granitic boulders . . . piled up in bizarre heaps, as if giants had amused themselves with childish games"; in places these rocky belts form a wilderness wide enough to act as a marchland.[34] With the poor sandy red soils of the gneisses and granites, a variable rainfall of 25–35 ins., and May mean temperatures in the 90s, life is hard except in favoured basins, where soil-wash and tank irrigation give some prosperity. Bare hills, reddish-khaki plains with scattered thorny scrub, rivers merely ribbons of sand for half the year or more, tanks bunded into the little valleys, all combine to produce a landscape with a desolate and brooding charm. The contrast between Hyderabad Marathwara and Telangana is extremely striking, and is brought out by Figs. 130 and 131.

The Ceded Districts are if anything worse.[35] In Marathwara there is hardly any surface water in the hot weather, except in the bigger streams; in Sn Telangana even this exception hardly holds. The railway bridges are stoutly built to withstand the immense volume of monsoon water in rivers which are then half a mile or more wide; in the hot weather they traverse great flats with a yard or so of water in the middle, and the herds of cattle or goats crossing the bed are recognisable from afar by their great clouds of dust.

Except for the jungles of the N, the region presents a decided savannah aspect, poor savannah with widely spaced acacias. Most of the tors are absolutely naked, and their skirts (with much of the more or less level ground) carry only a thorny scrub, in which euphorbias are prominent, while in damper depressions there are scattered palms, toddy or the wild Indian date. The scrub is secondary, on ground long subject to the depredations of sheep and especially goats, or once cultivated.

Agriculture

Rainfall, by and large, is much the same in Telangana as in Maharashtra; if anything more favourable, since the region lies farther from the lee of the Ghats and more open to Bay of Bengal influences. But differences in terrain and soil are decisive. The area here considered is about 75,000 sq mls, of which the TSA is only about 43% (approximately 20,250,000 ac.).[36] Forest

[34] E. Reclus, *L'Inde* (1883), 506; cf. *Hyderabad Gaz.* (1909), 2.
[35] For some vivid remarks, see J. C. Molony, *A Book of South India* (1926), 166.
[36] Figures even more approximate than usual, as those of Hyderabad are internally suspect.

311 [312] covers over 14,000 sq mls, largely on the indeterminate En marches of the region. Irrigation, though more important than in Maharashtra, accounts for only 8–9% of NSA and is over 60% from tanks. Fig. 136 brings out some points of the Maharashtra/Telangana contrasts, the Districts selected being comparable in area, while Ahmadnagar is not too specialised to cotton. The most striking features are the much smaller proportion of cultivation in Anantapur, and the far higher proportion of 'other food-grains', i.e. the poorer millets and pulses such as gram.

241 There is, however, considerable internal variation. Rice everywhere plays a much more prominent role than in most of Maharashtra, but still accounts for only 7% of NSA: dependent on the tanks, it is the food of the better-off agricultural classes. Jowar has the largest acreage (*c.* 5·4 m.), followed by bajra (*c.* 1·5 m., largely on lighter soils); significantly enough, gram is third with 600,000 ac. Maize is important in some Hyderabad Districts, nearly 10% of TSA in Karimnagar. Oilseeds are the dominant cash crop, approaching 4 m. ac. Groundnuts account for some 60% of this,[27] and in the Ceded Districts play something of the role of cotton in Maharashtra:

	NSA, 1948–49	*% of total area*	*Groundnuts*		
			"Normal"	*1948–49*	*1948–49, % of NSA*
Kurnool . .	2,074	41·5	476	267	12·5
Bellary . .	2,225	61·4	320	324	12·9
Cuddapah . .	1,000	26·3	187	182	16·9
Anantapur .	2,026	47·0	341	372	17·7
	7,325	43·7	1,324	1,145	15·6

Figures in thousand acres; the 1948–49 groundnuts total was 31% of that for Madras. Figures supplied by Mr C. D. Deshpande.

Jowar takes the heavier soils: "In a tract with just the minimum rainfall, 20–30 ins., groundnut is the most valuable kharif crop on light soils, where the soil is not heavy enough for jowar and rainfall not high enough for rice." Cotton has only half the acreage of oilseeds, and except on the black soils of the greater rivers, extrusions from Maharashtra, it is largely limited to the Raichur (Kistna/Tungabhadra) Doab: Raichur and Bellary Dts account for well over half the total acreage. In this area a high proportion of the rain comes late in the wet season; at Anantapur, a little to the E, 8·6 ins. fall in September alone, and July–September inclusive account for 15·6 of a total 27·4 ins. The rabi crop therefore tends to be more important than the

[27] S. Velayudham, "Groundnut in Madras", *IGJ* XXI (1946), 100–12 and 153–73; refce at p. 157.

312 Tungabhadra scheme; but the history of large-scale irrigation here is discouraging, though of course much experience has been gained since the 377 Kurnool failure. With the development of hydro-electricity there may come 491 decentralised industrial development on the Mysore model; but Mysore 433 had a more solid backing in at least some industry, sericulture and Bhadravati iron for instance, to give a base. Telangana is not without resources such as oilseeds and fibres (including sheep and goat wool), and in view of *India's* shortages in non-ferrous metals development of the poor communication net might lead to at least some exploitation of the scattered minerals. But when all is said, it seems likely that Telangana will remain, if not a backward, at least a poor country.

The Anantapur-Chittoor Basins

133 Between the bold scarp of the Palkonda Range and the higher Mysore levels are a series of basins around the middle courses of the Penner tributaries—Chitravati, Papagni, Punchu/Cheyyeru, the last two with a remarkable confluence-gorge in the Palkondas. To the SE the sub-region breaks down to the Nellore/Coromandel plains through the little intermont basins of the Nagari Hills (up to 2800 ft) and through the broader Swarnamukhi valley, which may occupy a fault-trough under the Palkondas. The whole area is crossed by N/S or NE/SW trap dykes, which may also have some influence on the remarkable drainage-pattern.

● 311 The area is isolated and poor, except in the extreme SE—the Nagari valleys, culturally transitional to Tamilnad. Only 20% of Chittoor Dt is cultivated—less than any other Madras District except the Nilgiris—but the density is **304**, intermediate between the Ceded Districts (*c.* **185**) and the coastal plains (**450–650**). Millets account for over 40% of the cropped area, followed by rice and groundnuts (24 and 14%).

491 There is no urban or industrial development worth mentioning. The
311 Nagari basins are better cultivated than those of the plateau, but even they
133 are not very impressive agriculturally: their flattish floors are broken by patches of sandy soil, almost bare but for a thin grass/acacia cover, and by naked rock exfoliation surfaces, looking like *roches moutonnées* and often used as threshing floors. Around the plain a lateritic piedmont slope fringes the craggy hills, with boulders as big as a small house on the talus slopes.
[361] Below the lateritic apron is a better-watered and more fertile piedmont strip, which is in places a solid belt of paddy, the zone of bush and trees along the laterite margin being a favoured settlement-line. It is a strange landscape: fantastic hills, stacked and pinnacled, long ridges capped by massive quartzites, reflected in the still waters of the big tanks with their borders of toddy palms; an eerily attractive picture under iron-blue or grey skies.

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
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dictates deposition in shallow but not sheltered waters, and the general lie of the E coast may thus be of great antiquity. The change in strike between the Orissa Hills and the Cuddapahs is very closely followed by the coast.

The hills are wooded and the pattern of relief stands out clearly on forest and population maps (Figs. 18, 30); but the forest is thin, rainfall being only about 40 ins. and the rocks porous or fissured. The few inhabitants are mostly Chenchus, an aboriginal tribe living a semi-pastoral existence eked out by the collection of honey, bamboos, fuel for the railways, and other minor forest produce.

The valleys, however, though on the whole poor enough, have a fair amount of cultivation, mostly jowar (25–30% TSA), other millets, groundnut (16–20%), with some irrigated paddy. The topography in the longitudinal valleys favours the construction of large tanks by bunding a transverse tributary gorge. The main (GIP) Madras–Bombay railway strikes diagonally across the S of the region, and is one of the most interesting traverses in India. The hill country is first entered in the Nagaris, which are the last Cuddapah outliers; here Renigunta and Tirupati are little towns controlling at once the route up the Swarnamukhi, the crossings of the river, and the col to the N between the Palkondas and Velikondas. Beyond, in the Razampeta corridor, the contrast between cultivated floor and barren hills is exceedingly sharp. The generally arid aspect is mitigated by groves of mangoes around the tanks; houses are stone- or mud-walled, and round beehive huts, striped vertically in white and rusty red, attest the Telugu country. After crossing the wide bed of the Cheyyeru, the line emerges at Cuddapah from grey and arid hills into a greyer plain, a vast ash-coloured expanse largely given over to dry cultivation. The region lies on the margin of the October–December rainfall area of the Madras littoral, and the rivers rise in the dry Mysore Maidan, not in the Wn Ghats as do Kistna and Tungabhadra; hence, even in August, the great streams—Penner itself, Cheyyeru, Papagni, Chitravati—may be spreads of quartzite boulders, shingle, or sand, several hundred yards wide with a line of water a yard across, or even not a drop; while only 90 miles to the N the Ghats-fed rivers are full, great ribbons of muddy water half a mile or more wide.

Through the Kunderu valley runs the ill-starred Kurnool Canal, constructed in 1860–76 by a private company which apparently failed to notice the difference in the régimes of Peninsular and extra-Peninsular rivers; the complete, but inefficient, canal had eventually to be taken over by the government in 1882 after two decades of mismanagement. The topographical layout is obviously encouraging, and it is now proposed to recast the whole project, with reservoirs on the Kistna and at Someswaram in the lowest of the Penner watergaps; the project, if carried out in full, would irrigate no less than 3 m. ac., mostly, however, in the coastal plain of Nellore.

Orissa AWI3
Telugu AWI7

CHAPTER XXIV

THE EASTERN LITTORAL: ORISSA AND ANDHRA DESA

(Regions XXXIII and XXXIV)[1]

Generalities

THE En Littoral forms a strong contrast to the Wn. The lowland is in general much wider, and much of it is a true coastal plain structurally, with in-facing cuestas developed on Cretaceous and Tertiary epeirogenetic deposits; elsewhere it is formed of the great deltas of the Mahanadi, Godavari, Kistna, and Cauvery. In the S the coastal lowland is no less than 60–80 miles wide, and is backed not by a steep more or less continuous wall but by the broken Tamilnad Hills (Javadis, Shevaroys, etc.) and by the low (1000–1500 ft) plateaus around the middle Cauvery.

O T 133

The climatic variation on this 1200-mile coast is highly significant. The N lies full in the track of the Bay of Bengal branch of the summer monsoon and receives *c.* 60 ins.; but Sn Orissa already lies on the fluctuant flank of this great current and receives a lower (*c.* 50 ins.) and less reliable fall. As we move S we enter the largest area of anomalous rainfall régime in the sub-continent, the SE which has its rainy season in the months of the retreating monsoon, October–December. From the great bend of the coast S of the Kistna delta this régime is dominant, and the lie of the coast—sub-parallel to the track of the rain-bearing depressions—contributes to generally low figures. The extreme S, Ramnad and Tinnevelly, is sheltered from the Arabian Sea branch by the high Anaimalai/Cardamom block, while to the N the great projection of the Cauvery delta, low-lying as it is, yet shuts off some at least of the retreating monsoon rain. Here we have remarkably low figures (25–30 ins.) for a coastal area in sub-equatorial latitudes.

O T 133 132

The agricultural contrasts which would normally result are to some extent masked by irrigation in the great deltas, but are nevertheless striking enough (Fig. 139). Orissa is as typical a paddy-land as Bengal—indeed in Balasore Dt over 95% of TSA is *unirrigated* paddy, and millets are totally absent. S of the Kistna, however, they generally exceed the area of *unirrigated* rice, and in places all rice; paddy dominates the landscape only where irrigation is possible on a reasonably large scale. There is further the difference between tank- and canal-irrigation, the former dominant everywhere away from the deltas.

O T 311 [312]

The primary division, then, is that between the areas of normal and of

O T 133

[see cat. 116, pp. 361-362 and map facing p. 352.--ANALYST]

6:Spate N-4 (no date)1954 AW1 India
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12 m.; densities increase from Ganjam (420) to E Godavari (714) and then decrease to Guntur (393); beyond the regional limits Nellore, with more Archaean terrain than the central parts of the Circars, and less (and less reliable and well distributed) rain than the Nn, had only 204. On the whole it seems best to treat Ganjam/Vizagapatam and the deltas separately.

(a) *The North*: *Ganjam and Vizagapatam* (*Vizakhapatnam*)

Essentially this is the area with over 40 ins.: the three Sn taluks of Vizagapatam fall a little short of this. The lowland narrows to 12 miles under Mahendragiri, but on either side of this gate are the embayments of the Rushikulya (Ganjam) and the Languliya and Vansadhara (Vizag) valleys. The plains are floored by red lateritic soils near the hills, shading off into black loams and clays; but they are cut up by numerous irregular outliers of the En Hills: thus Vizagapatam itself lies between the 1600-ft Kailana Ridge to the N and the 1100-ft Yaroda to the S; the latter runs out to sea in the bold cliffs (300 ft) of Dolphin's Nose which shelters the port, while in the Nn suburbs of the town are the peculiar Waltair Highlands, *c.* 150 ft high and formed largely by the accumulation, since the Pleistocene, of red loams partly fluviatile and partly perhaps aeolian.[3]

Of a TSA of some 4 m. ac., rice accounts for about 1·65 m. ac., ragi 390,000, oilseeds (chiefly groundnut) 500,000, the balance being widely distributed amongst millets and pulses mainly. Irrigation is on the whole unimportant, much of it being dependent on temporary mud-and-brush-wood dams across the short rivers.

Mineral resources are few—graphite, manganese, kaolin, mica—and hardly developed; a potential resource of some interest in this atomic age, though limited in amount in comparison with other *Indian* occurrences, is the ilmenite and monazite in the dunes and beaches around Vizagapatam.[4]

Industrial development—with the important exception of the Vizag shipyards—is again negligible: two or three jute and sugar mills in the Vizagapatam plains. Hydro-electric development in the hills might alter this.

Again there is only one real town, 'Vizag' itself (**108,042**), which has developed considerably since the opening of the railway up the Languliya valley to Raipur and the subsequent dredging of a deep-water harbour in the tidal marshes. The accommodation at quayside is limited, but it is more up-to-date than at most E coast ports. The selection of Vizag as the main shipbuilding centre of *India* is presumably because of its situation as the nearest *ocean* port to Jamshedpur, but it is still a long way round. Ships up to 8000 tons have been launched. The hinterland extends to Nagpur and the chief trade is in Madhya Pradesh (CP) manganese, and oilseeds and their products. The small ports of Bimlipatam and Gopalpur are quite

[3] See the very original paper by C. Mahadevan and N. Satheesathi, "The Origin of the Waltair Highlands", *JMJ* XXIV (1949), 26–51.

[4] *Ibid.*, *loc. cit.*, 29.

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The worn-down margin of the Archaean hinterland is poor country: undulating plains broken by little hills, with much waste and stony ground; soils are mainly lateritic with some loams. The coast for several miles inland is largely fringed with mangrove swamp (valuable as a fuel reserve) or sand-dunes rising to 30 or 50 ft. Between the relatively negative upland and the completely negative coast lie the rather limited areas of true delta. At Bezwada (Vijayarada), 45 miles inland, the Kistna crosses a low gneissic ridge in a 1300-yd-wide gap; this is utilised for the headworks of canals irrigating about 900,000 ac. The Godavari Delta begins 40 miles inland at Dowleshwaram, where a dam 2¼ miles long feeds canals for another 1 m. ac. (TSA; NSA 800,000). The deltas are of course liable to flood, at times disastrous; and cyclones are also a danger, that of 1864 causing 30,000 deaths and ruining the prosperity of Masulipatam port for ever. In the Kistna delta the land slopes away from the main distributaries at about 18 ins. to the mile, and in that of the Godavari below Dowleshwaram "the country is a vast expanse of ricefields dotted with gardens and villages. During the rains the greater part of this tract becomes one sheet of water, only village sites, canal banks, roads, and field boundaries appearing above it. Later in the year, as the rice grows higher, the dividing boundaries are hidden; and the whole country looks like a single ricefield, the groves around the villages, the road avenues, and the white sails of the boats gliding along the main canals breaking the uniform sea of waving green crop." [6] There is still a certain amount of local traffic, chiefly paddy, on the canals.

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Between the deltas Colair Lake occupies a depression not yet silted up, though constantly diminishing by natural and artificial encroachment; covering about 100 sq mls in the rains, it has at times dried out. Its numerous islands are intensively cultivated, and there is a good deal of fishing.

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Rainfall exceeds 35 ins. only in the seaward half of the Godavari Delta, and the tendency to October maxima is unfavourable to the groundnut and early paddy harvests, while cotton sowings must be late. Irrigation, if not essential, is at least highly useful; its importance is reflected in the high densities (up to 1100 plus) of some delta taluks. The following figures (in thousand acres approximately) give a summary view of the agriculture:

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	Total area	*NSA*	*TSA*	*Rice*	*Total foodgrains*	*Ground-nuts*	*Total oilseeds*
E Godavari .	3981	1072	1380	692	1070	4	142
W Godavari	1511	800	1111	697	823	42	115
Kistna .	2270	1119	1225	572	877	185	195
Guntur .	3684	2092	2384	400	1405	365	395

[6] *Ibid.*, 268–69.

For the purely delta taluks, of course, the rice proportion would be higher. Tobacco covers some 200,000 ac. in all, the best being grown on temporary sand-islands in the larger streams. Some sugar is grown, but this tall and long-standing crop must be protected from cyclones by expensive fencing with bamboos.

Again mineral potentialities are slight and development slighter. There are two tiny unworked coalfields, of dubious value, in the Gondwanas along the Godavari; graphite and kaolin are worked in a small way, mainly for Rajahmundry paper mills (which use paddy straw as well as bamboo from the hills) and for the small crucible industry at the same town. Salt evaporation at Cocanada might lead to a chemical industry. Industry itself, though very small-scale, is interesting; as well as the Rajahmundry works just mentioned, and the rice and tobacco trades to be expected, there are cement, silk, fruit canning, and vegetable ghee works. Most of these are congregated along the Kistna below Bezwada and between Rajahmundry and Cocanada. Varied as it is, the total is not impressive: the crucible industry has 150 skilled workers, the paper mill a capacity of 3000 tons p.a.; the 77 rice mills in E Godavari employ only 1800 workers, the three silk factories 122; and the total industrial population of this District is only 7200—0·39% of total population, and at that not much below the figure for Madras State (0·42%). Such as it is, this industrial development has yet led to an ominous, if incipient, competition for land in a few tracts between tobacco and paddy; fortunately the region, except for Guntur, has a sizeable rice surplus (about 400,000 tons less 110,000 tons deficit in Guntur); and counting all foodgrains Guntur also has a surplus.[1]

The industrial, and to some extent the agricultural, future of the region will depend on whether or not the great Ramapadasagar multi-purpose scheme is executed; at present financial difficulties stand in the way. The proposed dam, 428 ft high with foundations 190 ft below the river bed, and 1½ miles long, would impound 15·6 m. ac.-ft of water, irrigate for paddy some 2·35 m. ac. of un- or under-developed land, improve the supply to 2 m. ac. already irrigated, and develop at least 100,000 kW; it might also, and less beneficially, trap the silt.

There are a fair number of minor towns. The site-significances of Bezwada (**161,198**) and Rajahmundry (**105,276**) are plain; Guntur (**125,255**) and Ellore (64,911) are trading centres with a little industry. The ports of Cocanada (75,140) and Masulipatam (59,146) are of little use. At Masulipatam large ships must lie 5 miles offshore (weather permitting!) and the half-dozen wharves are three miles up a winding creek; yet in early European days it was a place of great importance, famous for carpets and

[1] This discussion is based on (i) Dr. V. L. S. P. Rao's interesting summary of his doctoral dissertation, "Industrial Problems, Development, and Planning [in] . . . the Lower Godavari Region" (*JGJ* XXIII (1948), 1–15); (ii) V. V. Ramanadham and V. L. S. P. Rao, *Economic Atlas of Andhra Desa* (Calcutta, 1949).

369 chintzes. The opening of the coastal railway completed the ruin of the
504 cyclone of 1864; yet it is still generally known as Bandar ('the port'). Cocanada is rather better, with many more wharves and jetties; but again the anchorage is 5–6 miles offshore. The ports might—at large expense—be developed as outlets for En Hyderabad, should that backward area itself be developed; but obviously the actively prograding deltas impose severe difficulties on any reconstruction; at Cocanada constant dredging is necessary to keep a depth of 4–6 ft (LWOST) on the bar. In the great days
167 of the coolie traffic, before the depression and the Indo-Burmese race-riots of the 1930s, Cocanada had an enormous migrant turnover.

(c) *Nellore*

133 The traditional Sn boundary of the Telugu country lies along the Tiru-
312 patti escarpment, overlooking the Renigunta basin; beyond is Tamilnad, a country, almost a nation, on its own. The transition is reflected in the increasing importance of tank-irrigation, though this will be changed if the Penner is ever fully utilised. Physically also the transition is marked by patches of marine Jurassics and the coastal belt of sub-recent Cuddalore sandstones; both become more important in the Madras coastal plain (Fig. 141).

133 Most of Nellore is poor country: low peneplains of Archaean gneisses
311 and schists, stony or lateritic and largely covered with scrub. Even allowing for the large part of the District in the Velikondas, agriculture is severely limited. The coast is fringed by a belt of alluvium 2–14 miles wide, between
[339] low-level laterites and the blown sand of the shore. The most interesting coastal feature is the great salt-water lagoon of Pulicat; the islands of the lagoon are used for burning lime from the great shell-banks (this is a main source of *chunam* plaster for Madras building) and salt smuggling is or was important.

312 The Penner and its associated tanks (Fig. 138) are already important for irrigation, and will be more so when the old scheme for an anicut at the Someswaram watergap through the Velikondas is carried out.

135 Away from the Cuddapah Ranges (above, pp. 678–82), the only mineral
471 wealth consists of laterite, building-stones, the coastal salt and shell-lime, and mica from the Archaean schists: output of mica is about 11,000 tons p.a., rather under 10% of *Indian* production. Nellore (56,315) is almost entirely administrative and commercial; it has a little pottery, but other industrial development is practically absent.

631 The Circars form the nucleus of the new Andhra State which never-
197 theless is to be administered from distant Kurnool. This is the first experiment in "linguistic states", and it can hardly be said that its geographical foundations are very sound or imposing (cf. 126, 675, 682).

The Village Panchayat Courts were for a group of villages with powers to try cases upto Rs. 200/- without legal practitioners. The Court Members were elected by all adult residents in the village. The number of members varied from 5 to 12 and each member held office for 3 years. 692

Forest Panchayats were elected by the cattle-owners of the village and then the Panchayat elected its President. The Forest Panchayats were allowed to levy fees for grazing and fuel collection, and then they were vested with certain statutory powers. They were under the control of the Revenue Department. 311

Besides these, there were Irrigation Panchayats elected by all landholders of the village who got water from the sluice. These were under the control of the Revenue Dapartment. 312

Then there were the Village Panchayat Schools. Each village with a population of 500 or more could, on application, have a grant of Rs. 180/- for a school-teacher and an initial grant of Rs. 80/- to start a school in the Panchayat area. There were about 800 Panchayat Schools in Madras by about 1928. 871

Last, but not the least, was the jurisdiction of the Panchayat in its present constitutional set up. The Statute in force did not allow the Village Panchayats any control over the Panchayat Court or Irrigation Panchayat or Forest Panchayat, wherever they existed, though Panchayat Schools alone were entrusted to Village Panchayats wherever they existed. These are discussed in latter sections of this chapter. 642

B. **Finance**: (Table No, 19)

Local Fund Cess: This was the main source of income to Panchayats in Madras as everywhere else. It was usually 1/6th of the total local fund cess of the Local Boards, soon after the abolition of the Taluk Boards in 1934, it was increased to 1/5th of the District Board Cess. But, the grant of the local fund cess to Panchayats was not based on any rational principle of local finance. In fact, the proportion, each Panchayat got, bore no relation to population, prosperity, poverty or administrative requirements. While a Panchayat situated in an irrigated area got local fund cess as its share, in proportion to the larger land revenue collected from the village. Panchayats existing in the dry areas got positively less local fund cess, in view of the lesser land revenue collected therein. 651

[p. 204]

Section V: Forest Panchayats in Madras

PART I

Administrative and Legislative Position on the Eve of Enquiry

311 Forest Panchayats in Madras can be traced back to 1912 when the Forest Committee recommended the formation of Forest Panchayats in the interest of economy and of bringing together the villagers and the Government. Establishment of Forest Panchayat was announced by a Gazette Notification to the villagers. It was considered good to choose single village as the area of a Forest Panchayat, but sometimes it was considered more advantageous to club together more villages with their grazing areas and to place these under a single Forest Panchayat elected by the conference of the villagers.

The Revenue Divisional Officer or his deputies went to the village for conducting elections. The number of seats was determined by the number of cattle owners in the village. Efforts were to be made as far as possible to represent members of all the communities. In the case of Forest Panchayats in South Canara, where the forest was used for leaf cutting alone, the body of the electors consisted of permit holders only.

[642] B. S. O. 195 of Madras gave all the details regarding the elections, finances, functions and supervision of the Forest Panchayats. The position of the Forest Panchayats during 1930–40 was as given in Table No. 21.

A. Structure: The resident cattle owners of the village were to form the electorate to elect the members of the Forest Panchayat and the Panchayat, its President. The Government transferred to these Forest Panchayats the management of forests with a view to create interest in the ryots for the preservation of areas entrusted to them. Usually an agreement was entered into between the Government and the management whereby the Panchayat was authorised to issue a specified number of grazing permits, to collect grazing fees at stipulated rates, and to enjoy minor forest produce. In return the Panchayat agreed to protect the forest from illegal grazing and goat browsing, fire accidents by employing sufficient number of watchers and also to pay to the Government a fixed rent every year for the forest

311 President was responsible for keeping : 1. the accounts book, 2. permit bills, 3. permit holder's register, 4. offence register was reported for 10 years, 5. a diary for recording the results of the inspection by the members and the President, and 6. map of the forest.

Whenever any offence was detected all the Forest Panchayatdars and Forest Panchayat Dy. Tahasildars and some Presidents of Forest Panchayats were empowered to compound the offences, when the value of the property damaged or compounded did not exceed Rs. 50/- Penalty should not exceed 3 times the grazing fee rates, in case of felling a tree, not more than 3 times the value of the property involved, and in the matter of forest goat browsing not more than 5 times the rate of sheep grazing fees. In the case of repeated or subsequent offence, the maximum might be exceeded. Minor fuel coups might be worked for meeting the domestic and agricultural needs of the village after the sanction of the Collector. One coup for the year might be marked. This fuel was not to be sold by auction. It was to be cut by the Panchayat through hired labour and to be sold to the villages by the issue of permits at the rates fixed by the Collector. Major fuel coups might be worked for supplying fuel to a town or a factory according to a plan approved by the Collector and the District Forest Officer in consultation with the Forest Panchayat. The coups were sold by public auction by the Deputy Forest Tahsildar with the help of the Panchayat and the proceeds were credited to Government except the incidental expenditure incurred for the cutting of wood which would be credited to the Panchayat.

[316] Similarly for quarrying, seignorage rates were fixed in the agreement subject to certain conditions of which one was that any quarrying conducted under this agreement should be confined to the ground vertically beneath the site of the locality covered by the agreement, and no quarrying beyond the area should be permitted. The Forest Panchayat should during the period of the agreement keep the premises in good and substantial repairs excepting the necessary and reasonable damages caused by quarrying.

D. Supervision and Control: The Forest Panchayat Deputy Tahsildars did the initial supervision while over them were the Revenue Divisional Officers and the District Collectors.

PART II

Actual Conditions Revealed by the Survey:

A. Structure: Selection of the sample of the Forest Panchayats was made on the same basis as that of the Village Panchayats in four categories i.e. good, moderate, unsatisfactorily and very unsatisfactorily working according to the connotation explained in the preface. (Table No. 22) 311

The Forest Panchayats were not constituted on one village one Panchayat basis, but they were constituted for a group of villages. Sometimes the Forest Panchayat was for 7 to 8 village hamlets e. g. Bayyavaram in Vizagapatam District, so with almost all the Forest Panchayats in every district.

The membership varied with the number of hamlets to be represented on the Panchayat. If number of hamlets was less and the area of the Forest Panchayat was meagre, naturally, the number of members of the Forest Panchayat was less.

The caste composition was usually cosmopolitan, i. e. 4 were Valamas, 4 were Kapus and one was Raju in Bayyavaram which was typical example. The other Forest Panchayats in other districts revealed a representation of all castes. [64]

The method of election was always by show of hands. The electorate consisted of the cattle owners. [641] [666]

There was no ex-officio membership of the Village Officials.

The ability of the Forest Panchayat and its working depended mostly on the team work of the members and their sense of responsibility, not to speak of the resources at their disposal.

B. Finance: Generally the income of the Forest Panchayats was constituted of the proceeds of the grazing fee, the sale of dead wood, fuel and quarry's stone, income from minor forest produce, bark, leaves, Tangedu, Avaram, etc. Income from sandalwood trees was generally taken by the Forest Department of the Government. Similarly income from big fuel coups was also taken away by the Government except an insufficient share given to the Forest Panchayats for meeting the cost of cutting the wood. (Table No. 23). 31, 651

The grazing permits of the Forest Panchayats were usually determined according to the extent of the acreage under command of the Panchayat. The incidence per cow came usually to 3 acres. But the rate of the grazing permits varied from one Panchayat to another Forest

311 651 Panchayat for instance in Bayyavaram Forest Panchayat in Vizagapatam, the rate of grazing per cow was Re 0-6-0, per buffalo Re. 0-12-0 and per sheep Re. 0-3-0 and for fuel each chit for head-load was charged at only Re. 0-0-6.

The grazing rates in Bellary for instance again varied similarly from one Forest Panchayat to another. In Chigetheri Forest Panchayat whose extent in area was 2686.83 acres, the rates of grazing permits were Re. 0-5-0 per cow, Re. 0-10-0 per buffalo, and Re. 0-2-6 per sheep. In Haskanhal, the rates were Re. 0-6-0 per cow. In Kodattu the rates for cow, buffalo and sheep were Re. 0-6-0, Re. 0-12-0 and Re. 0-3-0, respectively.

[314] The income from minor forest produce also varied from one Forest Panchayat to another depending on the nature of the forest produce available, i. e. Tangedu, Avaram, Garualmia, Margosa, sandal-wood, Kasangaddi, Kluesklues, Tamarind, Mustard and the game like deer, peacock, dove, etc.

[316] Quarrying fees were collected in Panchayats like Bayyavaram in Vizagapatam and Betamcherla in Kurnool. Such examples were to be found even in Bellary.

Bayyavaram Forest Panchayats usually sold the fuel coups at a cost not less than Rs. 1000, remitting the same to the treasury. Of this only 10 per cent was given to the Panchayat. It sold fuel dead-woods at Re. 0-0-6 per head load, Re. 0-6-0 per cart-load, Re. 0-1-0 per shoulder-load etc., and levied quarrying fees of Re. 0-2-0 and Re. 0-1-0 per cart load of chisled and unchisled stone respectively.

Income from fuel coups was rarely seen except in Panchayats of the Ceded Districts as that of Bellary, e. g. Jaga the biggest toward Hospet and Dhemaketupalli near Hindupur, in Anantapur. Here the Government of the neighbouring four areas were keeping their wood in Government Depots. The ordinary dead wood was allowed to be sold as usual on the basis of permits.

311 652 One peculiar feature of the budget of the Forest Panchayats was the large balances that accrued from year to year. There was no systematic planning of expenditure for useful purposes by these Panchayats. Panchayats were responsible for the payment of watchers, pay and dress, maintenance and the protection of the reserves from damages of illicit grazing, fire, and theft of firewood and forest produce, the preservation of cairns, the cleanliness, orderliness, etc. Greater the extent of the Panchayat area, greater the number of watchers and greater consequently was the expenditure.

C. **Functions**: Table No. 24. 1/1 311 ●

Watch: The appointment and pay of the watchers was usually left entirely to the discretion of the Forest Panchayat President and members. Very often the pay per month varied from Rs. 8 to Rs. 12, rarely a watcher was paid Rs. 20 or above. There were instances where he was paid only Rs. 6. 465

In Vizagapatam Bayyavaram Forest Panchayat maintained 3 watchers on a monthly pay of Rs. 10 each. In Pedapalli Forest Panchayat of the same district, there were watchers but each got Rs. 6 per month. In Gokivada Forest Panchayat of the same district the pay of the watcher was Rs. 8.

In Anantapur Dhemaketupalli Forest Panchayat paid Rs. 15 to each of its watchers. In Kurnool East Ramalkota Forest Panchayat paid one watcher Rs. 12 per month and another Rs. 14 p. m. In Jonnagiri, the watcher was paid Rs. 16 p. m.

In Bellary, the pay of the watcher similarly varied from one Forest Panchayat to another.

Lease Amount: The most important item of expenditure in the budget of the Forest Panchayats was the lease amount as it would be noticeable from the table. This depended partly on the extent of the forest area and consequently on the number of coups filled up. 311 652

After these two main items of expenditure i. e. the pay and dress of the watchers and the lease amount paid to the Government, what remained was not very often adequate to spend for the functions extended to the Forest Panchayats, as for instance, maintenance and repair of cairns, the preservation of fuel reserves, the protection of forest from illicit grazing, fire, etc. The paucity of funds was in general responsible for the unsatisfactory nature of the Forest Panchayats in most instances.

The working of the Forest Panchayats in the Ceded Districts was far superior to the working of the Forest Panchayats in any other part of the Presidency. There were of course various levels observable. 311

In Vizagapatam, for instance, they were notorious for their backwardness.

Plantation: Plantation of trees, development of nurseries, repairs of ponds and reconstruction of cairns were the duties which few Panchayats could either afford or care to undertake and finish. Accordingly we found some Forest Panchayats with good finances and doing good work, some with good finances and still doing bad work, 311 313

 1/1 [See p. 218, category 316.—Analyst]

911 a few with bad finance and good work and the majority with bad
313 finances and doing bad work.

311 There were to be seen specimens of good Panchyats as Dhemake-tupalli in Aantapur, Bandar Forest in Kistna, East Ramalkota in Kurnool and Jaga in Bellary.

Dhemaketupalli Forest Panchayat was an ideal type so far as Anantapur was concerned. Its jurisdiction extended over 3 villages of Hensakepalli, Kanchi Samudram and Chila Mathur along with the hamlets of Godarallapalli, Kellapuram, Godepalli, Manda Makulapalli, Gorgatipalli, etc. The big tank in the middle of the Forest Panchayat was repaired and a big nursery was developed for plantation of about 50 trees of Margosa, Peta, Kanga Neridi, Tangedu, etc., every year. It also prepared the fuel coups. The sale value of Tangedu was usually given to the Forest Panchayat, but even that was stopped for the time being. In Kistna District, Bandar was the ideal type of Forest Panchayat and Jaggayapeta was another good specimen. Here the Forest Panchayat spent every year a good sum for the repairs and up-keeps of the ponds and the tanks. East Ramalkota in Kurnool began planting every year 100 trees of which about 25 survived. Repairs along with cleaning of the tank for cattle were regularly done. Scent from Khuskhus was prepared and sold. Here cairns were white washed and kept neat. In Bellary Jaga Forest Panchayat was the biggest of its type.

There were some moderate Panchayats, where though the income was not much, the working showed good enthusiasm, as for instance the Forest Panchayats like Kanavalli, Kanchikari, Nenikathi, and Saluvojigi in Bellary. Here the income of the Panchayats was not much yet they paid some attention to the maintenance of cairns, repairs of ponds, etc. They also took up the work of plantations of Margosa, Mango, Tangedu, etc.

The majority of the Forest Panchayats sufferd from both bad finances and bad administration too. They were not able to pay adequate attention to the several functions entrusted to them.

911 **Departmental Administration** : As a means of improving their
656 administration, the Government started taking up their management and handed it over to the Revenue Department. This, in practice, proved to be a more miserable failure than the existing system of management by the Panchayats. For instance in Anantapur out of the existing 88 Forest Panchayats, 50 were under the manage-

ment of the Revenue Department. Administration of Venkatampalli, Sangina Malka. Durgam, Odepalli and Methola, etc. Forest Panchayats was under the village Munsifs and was pretty unsatisfactory. Moreover no separate administration and supervision reports were maintained by the supervisory staff to distinguish the consequences of the management by the Government. 311 656

Whenever a particular Forest Panchayat was transferred to the charge of the Government, the Panchayat was abolished and the village headman was automatically kept in charge of it. Thereafter, the moiety, the minor forest produce, the income from the fuel coups, etc. the receipts of the sale of dead wood and stone, the quarrying fees, all accrued only to the Government. When the administration of the Forest Panchayat was not satisfactory under an elected Panchayat, it could not be bettered under the village headman and this was proved by experience in every district.

D. Supervision and Control: The number of watchers in relation to the extent of the Forest Panchayat was everywhere thoroughly inadequate. To add to it, the members and the Presidents of the Forest Panchayats in most instances were litigant. In the Collectorate, the Revenue Divisional Officers and Forest Tahsildars were [illegible]nced in number. Forest Tahsildars were still only in the districts of Nellore, Chittoor, Kurnool, Bellary and Anantapur. Several instances of illicit browsing, cutting fuel coups unnoticed by the supervisory staff who could not always go through the whole of the forest area, etc. continued. The members of the Forest Panchayat sometimes willfully took away the supervisory staff from places where such ravages would be discovered. Some of the Forest Deputy Tahsildars in the course of their interviews observed that generally the members of the Forest Panchayat attempted to mislead them without allowing them to know the real facts of the situation. 311

PART III

Observations

A. Structure: Forest Panchyats in practice were constituted not on one Panchayat to one village basis, but on the basis of the forest area of contiguous villages. The membership varied from one Forest Panchayat to another according to hamlets and communities to be represented. Election was usually by show of hands. The electorate was of the cattle owners in the Forest Panchayat area.

B. Finance: The resources at the disposal of the Forest Panchayats were usually collected unleft, but the oft-repeated 311 652

311 662 complaint was that they did not always sell as many grazing permits as they ought to sell. Again there was no uniformity in the rates of the grazing fees or the incidence of the grazing area alloted. Large balances which went on accruing were usually left without being properly utilised. Some Panchayats did not sell the authorised number of grazing permits and thus lost legitimate revenue.

311 **C. Functions:-** If the small resources which were at the disposal of these bodies were almost all expended on the pay of the watchers and their dress, and on lease, very little was left over for other normal functions. To allow the watchers to be appointed by the Forest Panchayats and to keep them at the mercy of these bodies seemed to be a precarious affair as they were not given some protection. Their salaries varied from Panchayat to Panchayat according to the financial ability of each Panchayat. There were no rules laid down about the required qualifications or scale or service of these servants. Most of the Forest Panchayats were not able to undertake satitfactorily functions like: 1. the preparation of the fuel coups, 2. sale of the dead wood, 3. giving quarrying permits and 4. protecting the forest reserves from fires, goat browsing and illicit grazing. Even white washing the cairns, digging wells and ponds were done by very few Panchayats. Development of nurseries was a novel idea that was always catching the imagination of enthusiastic Panchayats only, while the rest were very indifferent in this respect. Sale of minor forest produce, barks, medicinal herbs, fire wood, timber and fuel coups, if regularly planned and worked out, would under normal circumstances yield a good revenue, but these resources were not being properly tapped.

Even the transference of these functions from elected Forest Panchayats to nominated village officials did not rather mean any improvement in the situation than the contrary because the village officials did not even keep the records of the inspection notes at the time of of their visits to the reserves. Consequently, there was much deterioration.

The Special Officer appointed to study the working of the Forest Panchayats in 1940 had observed in his report that the backwardness of most of these bodies was due to their slackness in issuing grazing permits and the failure of the Panchayat members to buy them. They were often found to be grazing their cattle without the necessary permits besides allowing their parties' in whom they were interested. He had suggested: 1. the abolition of the payment of the lease amount to Government, 2. increasing the incidence of grazing units from 3 to 6 acres, 3. better payment to the watchers to ensure efficient watching and supervision to avoid unnecessary felling and grazing, 4. appoint-

ment of a forester to train the villagers in all technical matters, 5. specific allocation of forest resources like income from moiety, compounding fees, minor forest produce, sale of fuel and quarrying permits to Panchayats, 6. award of Re. 1 per cultivated acre, 7. opening of fuel coups wherever possible and the starting of departmental depots for selling fuel and timber; 8. appointment of Forest Panchayat watchman by the Government rather than by the Panchayat and 9. starting of nurseries. 311

Other suggestions in the Report were: 1. the creation of a single Forest Panchayat for single village, 2. adding the adjoining reserves in its jurisdiction, 3. nomination of the village officials as ex-officio members, 4. standardization of the rates of the grazing permits, and raising them by 10 per cent, 5. concentration on converting the Forest Panchayats mostly as grazing areas. 6. development of tree growth, 7. compulsory construction of cattle pounds by the Panchayats, and 8, surprise checks of Forest Reserves by the Revenue Divisional Officers, Forest Tahsildars and forest rangers. But unfortunately the Government did not accept most of the recommendations on one ground or other with the result there was also no improvement in the administrative position of these bodies upto the time of the enquiry.

D. Supervision and Control: The number of the watchers compared to the area of the forest panchayats was usually inadequate with the result supervision of the reserves was extremely unsatisfactory in many instances. To add to it the members and Presidents of the Forest Panchayat were guilty of several offences like not buying the grazing permits and allowing not only their cattle but those of their friends and relations to graze free in forest reserves and prevent detection. To add to this state of affairs, the Collectors, Revenue Divisional Officers and Forest Deputy Tahsildars were reduced in number and were confined to the districts of Chittoor, Kurnool, Bellary Nellore and Anantapur. Several instances of illicit grazing, goat browsing and fuel cutting went unchecked because the supervisory staff could not go round the entire reserve each time and periodical visits were so rare that there was much time lag between them. The supervisory agency said that very often they were lead away from the actual scene of ravages by the Panchayat members so that if any acts of vandalism were committed they might not be known to them. In view of such deplorable lack of conscientiousness on the part of the Panchayat members, shortage of supervisory personnel and indifference of Panchayats to do honest good work, their future would lie in uncertainty unless some attempts would be made soon to remedy these defects.

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Table No. 21—Data on Forest Panchayats in Madras State. (1930-1939)

Particulars regarding the number of Panchayats, the area under their charge and the rent payable by them to Government in each District

No.	District	1930-31			1931-32			1932-33			1933-34			1934-35		
		No. of Panchayats	Area sq. miles	Rent Rs.	No. of Panchayats	Area sq. miles	Rent Rs.	No. of Panchayats	Area sq. miles	Rent Rs.	No. of Panchayats	Area sq. miles	Rent Rs.	No.	Area sq. miles	Rent Rs.
1	Vizagapatam	8	32·67	562	8	32·67	567	8	32·64	562	8	32·64	562	8	32·64	562
2	East Godavari	5	16·91	225	6	18·06	260	6	18·06	260	6	18·06	260	5	18·06	260
3	West Godavari	13	57·94	1985	13	59·43	1435	13	59·05	1440	13	59·36	1510	13	59·36	1385
4	Kistna	20	98·95	2384	20	98·57	2334	20	98·57	2234	20	98·51	2219	20	98·72	2219
5	Guntur	61	193·63	14085	60	193·63	13820	60	196·78	12968	60	196·39	12995	60	196·27	12518
6	Kurnool	25	143·72	5719	25	114·49	5661	25	148·88	5661	25	148·37	6038	24	130·67	5728
7	Bellary	101	485·20	11827	98	485·72	11908	98	485·72	11818	98	486·36	11818	98	485·72	11693
8	Anantapur	93	448.34	11922	92	452·91	12034	92	452·74	11952	92	457·43	11763	92	457·43	11712
9	Cuddapah	54	216·45	6053	54	224·07	6148	54	224·08	6063	54	224·08	6063	54	224·08	5983
10	Nellore	167	395·77	28362	155	394·46	27707	154	399·76	27524	154	399·39	27787	153	394·52	28435
11	Chingleput	66	112·57	10318	67	117·00	10412	67	117·00	10342	67	116·70	9848	67	116·83	9809
12	South Arcot	73	232·52	15714	68	222·50	15755	68	222·40	15615	64	222·55	15618	64	222·28	15618
13	Chittoor	73	318·42	9037	71	315·68	8742	72	315·66	8062	72	315·70	8177	72	315·66	7882
14	North Arcot	90	275·41	15525	91	277·63	15450	91	276·62	16479	91	277·55	17362	90	278·45	17188
15	Salem	42	158·27	7597	42	159·21	7363	42	159·21	7363	42	159·21	7363	41	159·21	7295
16	Coimbatore	21	60·73	3715	21	60·73	3715	21	61·73	3715	21	61·62	3715	21	58·62	4438
17	Trichinopoly	43	90·88	7353	41	90·88	5613	41	90·86	5601	42	90·44	5601	42	90·44	5601
18	Madura	21	41·65	2038	21	41·65	2026	21	41·81	2031	21	41·80	2031	21	41·80	2031
19	Ramnad	1	0·86	254	1	0·86	254	1	0·86	254	1	8·86	254	1	0·86	254
20	Tinnevelly	7	9·84	773	7	10·25	773	8	12·52	966	7	10·22	780	7	10·22	830
21	South Kanara	10	3·05	...	10	3·38	...	10	3·17	...	10	3·11	...	10	3·04	...
	Total	994	3383·78	155448	971	3403.78	150972	972	3423·12	151281	968	3420·41	152483	963	3395·08	151441

28: Rao E-5 (1946-7) 1954
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26. Rao E-5 (1946-7) 1954
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(Table No. 21—Contd)

No.	District	1935-36			1936-37			1937-38			1938-39			1939-40		
		No.	Area sq. miles	Rent Rs.	No.	Area sq. miles	Rent Rs.	No.	Area sq. miles	Rent Rs.	No.	Area sq. miles	Rent Rs.	No.	Area sq. miles	Rent Rs.
1	Vizagapatam	8	32·64	562	8	32·64	562	8	32·64	562	8	32·64	562	8	32·64	562
2	East Godavari	5	18·06	260	5	18·06	260	5	18·06	260	5	18·06	260	5	20·75	290
3	West Godavari	13	58·61	1385	13	58·61	1385	13	58·61	1385	13	58·61	1385	13	58·61	1385
4	Kistna	20	99·06	2319	20	99·06	2219	20	99·06	2219	20	99·06	2219	20	99·06	2219
5	Guntur	60	196·19	12438	61	195·59	12433	61	195·59	12424	56	175·01	10959	56	174·89	9461
6	Kurnool	24	130·61	12438	24	130·61	5698	24	130·44	5698	24	130·43	5598	24	130·44	5253
7	Bellary	99	490·52	11711	98	488·74	11591	95	474·04	11387	95	474·04	11212	95	474·04	11212
8	Anantapur	92	457·43	11712	92	457·44	11187	92	457·44	11262	92	457·44	11262	92	457·04	11212
9	Cuddapah	54	227·74	5773	54	227·75	5773	54	227·75	5823	54	227·75	5473	54	227·75	5408
10	Nellore	154	396·22	28617	154	391·49	28714	156	388·84	28734	156	394·85	28301	156	394·85	28248
11	Chingleput	67	116·81	9709	67	116·59	9679	67	116·62	9633	67	115·80	8923	68	110·36	8923
12	South Arcot	64	222·49	15538	67	222·50	15308	67	222·50	15408	67	222·40	14848	67	222·40	14848
13	Chittoor	72	315·70	7867	71	315·69	7802	71	315·69	7802	71	315·69	7637	71	315·69	7287
14	North Arcot	89	274·20	16738	89	274·21	16723	89	274·21	16596	89	274·21	16350	89	274·21	15403
15	Salem	41	153·67	7295	40	152·52	6992	39	147·56	6722	39	140·58	6776	39	139·69	5979
16	Coimbatore	21	58·62	4615	21	58·49	4640	21	58·56	4705	21	58·56	4852	21	58·56	4681
17	Trichinopoly	42	90·66	5586	42	90·58	5586	42	90·58	5586	42	90·58	5511	42	90·58	4896
18	Madura	21	41·77	2031	21	41·77	1976	21	41·77	2031	21	41·77	1961	21	41·77	1953
19	Ramnad	1	0·86	254	1	0·86	254	1	0·86	254	1	0·86	254	1	0·86	254
20	Tinnevelly	7	10·23	780	7	10·33	780	7	10·03	780	7	10·08	780	7	10·08	780
21	South Kanara	13	3·04	...	10	3·04	...	10	3·04	...	10	3·04	...	10	3·04	...
	Total	964	3395·12	150878	965	3386·57	149563	963	3363·04	149562	963	3341·46	145124	960	3336·74	140090

N. B.—The figure for 1939-40 includes figures upto June 30th 1940. There were no Panchayats in Malabar District.

31 **Table No. 22—Constitutional Aspects of Forest Panchayats in Madras**

S. No.	Name of Village	District	No. of Members	Extent Acres	Category	Starting Date
1	Bayyavaram	Vizagapatam	9	3686	A	1925
2	Pedapalli	"	8		A	1922
3	Gokivada	"	6		C	1920
4	Regupalem	"	9		A	"
5	Kalavalapalli	"	9		C	1926
6	Yerravaram	"	9		A	1920
7	Dhemaketupalli	Anantapur	9	3523	A	1926
8	Sankargallu	"	9	...	A	1920
9	Betamcherla	Kurnool	9	5000	B	1925
10	Jonnagiri	"	6	824	B	1920
11	Gooty, Erraguderu	"	6	3655	B	1920
12	East Ramalkotah	"	9	2800	A	1926
13	Jaggayapeta	Kistna	5	9000	A	1923
14	Bandar Forest	"	8	2500	B	1920
15	Balgeti	Bellary	8	1879	B	1920
16	Arekara	"	5	1634	C	1920
17	Hulikatti	"	6	...	C	1924
18	Eligatteri	"	6	2687	B	1920
19	Harkanlal	"	8	1901	C	1926
20	Adivimakankara	"	7	1863	C	1920
21	Alagalivada	"	9	3506	C	1926
22	Uchangidurgam	"	9	5278	B	1926
23	Musavankalahal	"	8	2319	C	1926
24	Kodattu	"	7	2151	C	1926
25	Jiydrada	"	9	3858	C	1922
26	Dasna Halli	"	5	1765	C	1927
27	Tagaikatti	"	6	3943	C	1926
28	Halvagal	"	9	4669	B	1927
29	Nagatbibasapuram	"	8	4523	B	1926
30	Aravamahal	"	8	2768	C	1926
31	Kanobikari	"	9	3478	C	1226
32	Kanavalli	"	9	2851	C	1926
33	Kayakathi	"	9	4719	C	1926
34	Bandikara	"	9	...	C	1926
35	Holgondi	"	9	2087	C	1923
36	Nenikathi	"	12	3004	B	1923
37	Salugoyi	"	9	2141	B	1920
38	Yellartai	"	9	2108	C	1923
39	Rayadrug	"	8	3500	A	1920
40	Kanispuram	"	9	2620	B	1926
41	Vithalapuram	"	5	1584	B	1926
42	Nibalgiri	"	7	3287	C	1926
43	Thimalgiri	"	6	2533	C	1926
44	Hospet, Joint for 7 villages	"	9	3280	B	1926
45	Metri	"	5	1753	C	"
46	Gandigamanur	"	6	3358	C	1925
47	Venkatapuram	"	9	3016	C	1926
48	Dharmasany	"	7	3047	B	1926
49	Jagga	"	9	...	A	1920
50	Dargi	"	9	3068	C	1920
51	Ingloti	"	8	...	C	1920

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Table No. 23—Income of the Forest Panchayats in Madras 1946 (Rs.)

	Name of the Village	District	Opening Balance	Grazing Fees	Minor Forest Produce	Moiety	Bank Interest	Assessment of Quarries	Sleepers & Deadwood
1	Bayyaveram	Vizagapatam	265	139	22	47	...	56	56
2	Pedapalli	"	206	18	30	12	12	...	...
3	Gokivada	"	298	90	8	6	8	...	8
4	Rerupalem	"	185	96	...	...	...	...	2
5	Kalavalapalli	"	765	117	6	100	...	...	8
6	Yeravaram	"	568	103	15	42	35	42	19
7	Dhemelatapalli	Anantapur	1067	600	125	40	22	...	...
8	Sankaragalla	"	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
9	Betamcherla	Kurnool	800	700	90	50	...	...	...
10	Jonnagiri	"	137	99	20	...	...	...	...
11	Gooty, Errguderu	"	1025	363	5	15	...	...	...
12	East Ramakotah	"	1523	409	130	189	20	...	...
13	Jaggayapeta	Kistna	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
14	Bandar Forest	"	60	124	138	...	...	...	78
15	Belgoti	Bellary	333	187	100	20	8	4	5
16	Arekara	"	100	172	5	1	...	...	...
17	Hulikatti	"	417	326	20	44	44	20	1
18	Kligetteri	"	...	312	70	2	1	...	...
19	Harkanlal	"	28	182	20	6	16	...	...
20	Adevimakankara	"	116	138	...	13	10	...	...
21	Alagallivad	"	36	318	15	5	...	15	...
22	Uona gidurgam	"	453	340	16	...	...	13	...
23	Musavankalabai	"	85	203	3	14	3	...	...
24	Kodatta	"	34	236	20	11	3	...	...
25	Hydrada	"	75	373	60	2	50	15	...
26	Dasana Halli	"	43	188	8	...	...	...	...
27	Tegalkatti	"	24	378	2	2	3	...	...
28	Halvagal	"	938	387	15	9	76	9	...
29	Nagathibasapuram	"	126	375	160	9	12	...	12
30	Kanchikari	"	175	275	30	5	5	24	324
31	Aravamahal	"	70	193	14	3	9	5	14
32	Kanavalli	"	633	296	125	5	10	3	1072
33	Koyakathi	"	632	296	20	70	3	...	...
34	Bandikara	"	340	225	30	30	25	20	10
35	Holgondi	"	52	262	63	...	284	...	...
36	Nemikathi	"	635	150	40	5	200	...	...
37	Sakagoyi	"	417	163	112	83	20	1	15
38	Yellarthi	"	388	187	3	80	20	80	...
39	Rayadrug	"	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
40	Kanisperam	"	537	337	31	3	10	...	...
41	Vithalaperam	"	...	262	30	2	...	...	...
42	Nibalgiri	"	236	289	87	8	...	...	9
43	Thimalgiri	"	...	175	83	60	...	...	...
44	Hospet	"	375	304	130	30	20	30	30
45	Metri	"	585	319	30	20	23	...	...
46	Gandigamanur	"	517	220	80	30	20	...	28
47	Venkatapuram	"	307	378	...	...	...	...	40
48	Dharmasamy	"	988	265	41	3	4	...	...
49	Jaraga	"	1383	464	10	44	...	...	292
50	Dargi	"	307	350	1	5	350	...	...
51	Ingledi	"	350	1	10	206	1	...	...

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Table No. 24—Expenditure of the Forest Panchayats in Madras (Rs.)

No.	Name of the Village	District	Lease Amount	Pay of Watchers	Dress	Contingencies	Cairns Repairs	Ponds Repairs	Plantation Charges	Maintenance	Balance
1	Bayyavarm	Vizagapatam	100	90	...	17	20	...	...	...	...
2	Pedapalli	"	127	120	...	3	...	...	...	...	...
3	Gokivada	"	20	64	...	115	...	...	...	...	405
4	Regupalem	"	100	200	...	1	...	...	...	...	...
5	Kalavalapalli	"	30	627	...	200	...	...	...	...	...
6	Yerravaram	"	20	110	...	1	11	...	...	2	234
7	Dhemaketupalli	Anantapur	165	540	60	15	40	5	...	...	1265
8	Sankargallu	"	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
9	Betamcherla	Kurnool	300	334	50	...	...	...	...	...	...
10	Jonnagiri	"	45	96	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
11	Gooty, Erraguderu	"	260	264	...	36	2	...	...	...	...
12	East Ramalkotah	"	200	307	...	5	...	1	1	...	...
13	Jaggayapeta	Kistna	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
14	Baudar Forest	"	150	192	...	20	...	...	...	...	...
15	Balgoti	Bellary	51	240	30	3	5	40	...	...	721
16	Arakara	"	35	192	10	2	10	5	5	...	...
17	Hulikatti	"	43	156	10	30	10	5	10	20	...
18	Elligatteri	"	60	204	10	10	15	5	5	5	...
19	Harkanial	"	63	132	5	5	5	5	...	...	...
20	Adivimakankara	"	30	80	...	5	...	...	...	...	...
21	Alagalivada	"	131	216	5	5	5	...	3	...	...
22	Uchangidurgam	"	60	160	15	5	4	...	...	...	...
23	Musavankalahal	"	70	168	5	15	5	...	...	...	...
24	Kodattu	"	41	236	40	5	3	20	...	...	...
25	Hydrada	"	126	294	20	1	20	...	...	...	...
26	Dassna Halli	"	55	108	10	5	5	5	...	...	...
27	Tagaikatti	"	110	92	5	5	2	...	...	...	...
28	Nagathibasapuram	"	144	288	12	18	144	7	7	...	...
29	Aravamahal	"	80	216	20	3	5	20	10	5	20
30	Kanchikari	"	64	216	20	4	10	10	10	5	...
31	Kanavatti	"	65	168	10	3	65	3	3	4	...
32	Halvagal	"	110	92	5	5	1	...	...	...	...
33	Kayakathi	"	168	10	3	40	65	3	4	...	...
34	Bandikara	"	33	216	20	220	250	250	17	...	...
35	Holgondi	"	65	66	1	...	...	...	...	...	...
36	Nemikathi	"	41	240	20	5	10	150	15	15	...
37	Salugoyi	"	130	288	20	3	5	300	20	...	...
38	Yellarthi	"	19	162	8	6	10	10	10	10	...
39	Rayadrug	"	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
40	Kanispuram	"	55	232	13	3	12	5	15	...	...
41	Vithalapuram	"	87	108	10	2	12	55	3	...	...
42	Nimbalgiri	"	85	240	7	2	20	100	5	5	...
43	Thimalgiri	"	90	110	...	13	...	...	...	...	...
44	Hospet	"	60	354	15	5	330	30	...	...	...
45	Metri	"	73	108	10	2	3	32	5	5	...
46	Gandigamanur	"	350	30	10	156	15	5	10	4	...
47	Venkatapuram	"	324	20	6	70	20	6	5	...	...
48	Dharmasany	"	112	18	5	115	...	...	...	...	...
49	Jagga	"	384	20	5	226	20	...	...	...	...
50	Dargi	"	192	20	2	170	20	...	...	...	...
51	Ingloti	"	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

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Castes.	Brahman.		Komati.		Kapu.		Balija.		Dhoby.		Karumala.		Boyas.		Yekili.		Kummara.		Muhammadan.		Dommara.		Total.		Grand total.
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	
Under 1 ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	...	2	3	5
1—5 ...	2	...	2	...	1	1	1	2	2	1	...	1	3	2	...	...	...	1	...	1	...	1	11	10	21
5-10 ...	...	...	1	...	3	...	...	...	3	1	...	...	...	2	...	...	...	1	1	...	...	1	8	5	13
10-15 ...	...	...	...	1	3	...	1	...	...	1	...	1	1	1	1	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	6	5	11
15-20 ...	...	...	...	1	2	...	...	1	...	1	...	...	...	3	...	...	...	...	1	1	...	...	3	7	10
20-25 ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	1	...	1	3	4	...	1	...	2	...	...	...	1	7	8	15
25-30 ...	...	1	...	...	1	...	...	1	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	...	...	...	1	3	4	7
30-35 ...	...	...	...	1	...	2	1	...	1	1	2	...	3	1	2	...	...	1	...	2	...	...	12	5	17
35-40 ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	1	...	1	...	...	4	...	4
40-45 ...	...	...	...	...	2	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1	1	1	...	...	1	...	...	...	3	5	8
45-50 ...	1	...	...	...	1	1	...	...	1	...	...	...	2	3	1	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	7	4	11
50-55 ...	...	...	1	...	1	...	1	1	...	...	...	1	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4	3	7
55-60 ...	...	1	1	...	...	...	1	1	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	1	...	1	1	...	...	2	4	6	10
60-65 ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	1	...	...	2	...	1	...	...	1	...	...	1	...	5	3	8
65-70 ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	1
70-75 ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	1

M. = Male. F. = Female.

The population of the paracheri is—men 13, women 12, children 19; 44 in all in 30 homesteads.

—	Family No. I.	Family No. II.	Family No. III.	Family No. IV.	Family No. V.	Family No. VI.	Family No. VII.	Family No. VIII.
Men ...	1 (age 60)	1 (age 45)	2 Age 20, 16	1 (age 60)	1 (age 35)	1 (age 50)	5 Age 55, 30, 27, 25, 20	1 (age 56).
Women ...	1 (age 36)	1 (age 30)	3 50, 16, 13	1 (age 50)	1 (age 20)	2 35, 35	1 (age 12)	2 40, 35
Children ...	6	2	...	2	...	3	...	6
Number dead.	...	3	...	...	1	...	...	...

311 *Land.*—There is jungle all round the village, where the cattle belonging to the village are allowed to graze on paying grazing fees to the zamindar.

312 There are five tanks. Out of these only two are of some size. The rest are small tanks. Even in the big tanks the water stored is sufficient for only one crop.

There are about 20 wells. Water is lifted up in most of them by means of the picottah. Four of the wells have been dug out of hard rock.

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312 There are no other sources of water-supply. There are no streams or rivers belonging to the village. There is one at some distance, but its water is used to irrigate lands belonging to adjoining villages.

311 651 According to assessment—

Wet lands.				Dry lands.			
Rate per acre paid to zamindar.	Extent.	Revenue.		Rate per acre.	Extent.	Revenue.	
RS. A. P.	ACRES.	RS. A. P.		RS. A. P.	ACRES.	RS. A. P.	
8 14 3	4·89	44 3 9		2 1 9	11·11	23 7 2	
7 12 6	1·57	12 8 2		1 10 9	4·65	7 11 1	
7 6 6	0·86	6 6 6		1 7 3	2·91	4 3 11	
6 10 9	1·11	7 7 2		1 3 7	13·95	17 6 7	
5 8 11	8·35	48 12 4		1 0 0	3·41	3 7 7	
4 7 2	58·60	266 6 1		...	...	...	
					Total ...	442 0 4	

Inams.

Dry lands.			Wet lands.			
Rate per acre.	Extent.	Revenue.	Rate per acre.	Extent.	Revenue.	
RS. A. P.	ACRES.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	ACRES.	RS. A. P.	
2 3 1	1·06	2 3 3	10 15 0	3·46	39 5 10	
1 10 3	15·52	20 9 4	8 12 0	5·69	61 5 8	
1 6 9	7·90	11 3 8	7 10 6	4·54	34 15 2	
1 3 2	3·58	4 4 11	5 7 6	0·85	6 5 0	
				Total ...	180 4 10	
				Other lands ...	442 0 4	
			Grand total of revenue received by zamindar ...		622 5 2	

427 [311] 241 *Occupation of land.*—A very small area, 62½ cents of dry land, and 31 cents of wet, belongs to the zamindar himself and is cultivated by a tenant. Such lands are called "kanagi." The rent is Rs. 1-5-2 for the dry land and Rs. 2-11-0 for the wet land.

There are eight ryots who hold land under the zamindar, of these six cultivate their holdings, and two, of whom one is the karnam of the village, let their land to sub-tenants who pay in shares of the produce.

There are thirteen sub-tenants who own no land.

In cultivating paddy, ragi, cholam, sazzulu, and other such grains, half of the produce generally goes to the cultivator, and the other half to the zamindari tenant who lets out his land, all the straw going to the cultivator only, who supplies himself with all the necessaries for cultivation.

But in some cases the zamindari tenant (the pattadar or inamdar) himself supplies one pair of bulls, and ploughs the land, while the cultivator simply helps him in his work. In that case only one-sixth of the produce is given to the cultivator. If the

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311 *Land*—

	ACS.
Wet land	141·30
Dry land	304·29
Land watered by wells	52·19
Common waste	451·35
Pastures other than waste	898·14
Woods and forests	

312 There are two tanks, *Kodipalli cheruvu* and *Varadarajulu kunta*. The first is sufficiently deep though not extensive, and the water stored in the tank is sufficient for two crops. The surplus water is allowed to collect in another small pond. There are fourteen wells, all built round with stone; and one stream when in flood affords an additional water-supply.

311 651 *Classification of lands—According to assessment*—

Wet lands.		Dry lands.	
Rates.	Acres.	Rates.	Acres.
Rs. 4-0-0	18·38	Re. 1	304·29
Rs. 5, Rs. 5-8-0	32·38	...	...
Rs. 6-0-0	21·24	...	...
Rs. 7-0-0	20·35	...	...
Rs. 8-0-0	7·37	...	...
Rs. 9-0-0	1·10	...	...

311 *Occupation of land.*—Of the dry land 109·02 acres, of the wet land 31·50 acres are cultivated by the landowners, the remainder, viz., 32·28 acres of wet land, and 272·79 acres of dry land are sublet and cultivated by tenants.

423 There are about 25 non-cultivating landowners. Some hold Government posts, about 12 are engaged in trade; there are between 30 and 40 tenants who own no land, and the agricultural workers who neither own nor rent land number men 113, women 47.

There are two kinds of ownership, inam and patta. All sirkar lands are held by pattadars. The area of holdings of inam ownership is 127·38 acres. The rest of the cultivable land is held by pattadars. Inamdars pay only quit-rent and road-cess.

There are only about half a dozen pattadars. One family alone owns 97·15 acres of wet and 143·14 acres of dry land.

427 *Rents.*—There are no cultivators who pay a money rent. Everything is paid in kind. The usual arrangement is that the cultivator himself supplies all that is necessary for cultivation, and out of the produce one-half goes to the landowner and the other to the cultivator. There are no other conditions of contract. But when sugarcane is cultivated the landowner gets only one-fourth of the produce.

The whole land revenue comes to Rs. 1,034 7-0, out of which the revenue from the inam lands alone amounts to Rs. 154-3-0.

463 Some of the villagers are engaged in trade side by side with agriculture. Others are potters, dhobis, in addition to being cultivators. Some hold Government posts. Some are contractors.

31: Slater S-5 (1916-1917) 1918 AW1 India
Telugu AW17

426 allowed by the Government for waste lands. An economic enquiry is held by the village officers every year and a report is sent to the Government.

311 There is scope for improvement on a large scale if only ryots are prepared to start with a large capital and adopt modern methods of agriculture. There does not seem to be any possibility of extending the irrigated lands. Almost all available land has been used up, and brought under cultivation.

312 The condition of tanks and wells has been improved of late. More wells could be sunk with advantage, but are not sunk owing to lack of funds.

733 The barbers, dhobis and others are tending to lose their lands
426 owing to their pernicious habit of drinking. People sell land in order to pay off old debts. Loans are given only on mortgage of lands. The chief purchasers are money-lenders.

167 There has been no emigration. But two Muhammadans are at
702 the front as sepoys. About a hundred belonging to this particular taluk are in the army and most of them are at the field of operations.

31: Slater S-5 (1916-1917) 1918 AWI India
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165 The figures for deaths are in general accurate, according to information collected in the village, with the exception of the deaths in the cholera epidemic of 1911 and the small-pox epidemic of 1915. In the latter, according to non-official information between 80 and 85 children died, and 160 persons in all. The record of births appears to be very defective.

162 By the 1911 census there were 396 homesteads; there are now 430 to 440, there being many recent extensions of the inhabited village into the fields on the north and south.

An approximate statement of the population according to caste is as follows:—

	Adults.	Children.
Brahmans	25	13
Vaisyas	55	40
Sudras, Kammas	225	220
„ Kapus	275	240
Carpenters and silversmiths	33	24
Weavers	26	22
Barbers	10	4
Washermen	100	150
Toddy-tappers	283	305
Shepherds	52	33
Potters	4	2
Muhammadans	5	1
Oil-mongers	11	5

Land.

311

	Acres.
Wet land	Nil.
Dry land, cultivated	1,545·27
Land watered by wells	7·40
Common waste	145·36
Pasture other than common waste	415·82

Most of the land is cultivated by the pattadar, but 226 acres are sublet to tenants. There are about 350 agricultural workers who neither own nor rent land.

241 The following are the principal crops:—

	Acres.
Paddy	166·39
Cholam	468·88
Kambu	73·68
Gingelly	194·74
Horsegram	151·34
Ragi	...
Chodi	1·90
Korra	6·10
Chillis	0·67
Jute	1·80
Tobacco	1·34

651 Land is assessed for revenue at the following rates:—

	Per acre. Rs.	A.	P.
Best black clay	1	12	0
Best black loam	1	10	0
Best red loam	1	10	0
Best red sand	0	10	0